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ABSTRACT

Intended to disseminate new information about early literacy development to teachers of young children, this 125-item annotated bibliography includes listings of books, book chapters, pamphlets, journal articles, and videocassettes that can help enhance teachers' knowledge base about theory and strategies in early literacy development. The material in the bibliography was published between 1973 and 1993. An introduction describes the areas of early literacy development under which the resources in the bibliography are categorized. The bibliography is divided into the following sections: (1) General Issues; (2) The Home Environment; (3) Oral Language; (4) Writing and Drawing; (5) Children's Literature; (6) Developing Comprehension; (7) Learning about Print; (8) Play; (9) Television; (10) Computers; and (11) Assessment. (RS)

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An Annotated Bibliography

Resources in Early Literacy Development

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[redacted]piled and edited by
[redacted]ley Mandel Morrow
Susan P. Burks
Muriel K. Rand

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An Annotated Bibliography

Resources in Early Literacy Development

Project of the Reading/Language in Early Childhood Committee, 1990

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Preface

A great deal of research has been done in the field of early literacy development since about the beginning of the 1970s. As a result, educators have examined the ways in which reading and writing used to be taught to young children and have begun to develop new and more appropriate instructional procedures. Although these strategies are known to some, the information needs to reach all teachers who work with young children in the area of early literacy development.

In 1990 the Reading/Language in Early Childhood Committee of the International Reading Association was charged with disseminating new information about early literacy development to teachers of young children. To accomplish this task, we decided to prepare an annotated bibliography of resources in the field. Topics in early literacy were identified for which references could be provided. Committee members volunteered to prepare bibliographies for the different areas. Members who contributed to the bibliography were Marcia Baghban, Maureen Buono, George Holland, Moira Fraser Juliebö, Patricia Kelly, Pamela Knorr, Lesley Mandel Morrow, Judith Schickedanz, Elizabeth Sulzby, David Tucker, and Carol Vukelich.

The annotations describe books, book chapters, pamphlets, journals, journal articles, and other material that can help enhance teachers' knowledge base about current theory and strategies in early literacy development. Books listed in the bibliography can be obtained directly from their publishers or may be in stock in the bookstores of colleges and universities that have schools of education. Many of them also will be found in college or university libraries. The journals listed may be found in libraries, or they can be obtained from the organizations that published them. Back issues of many educational journals are available through University Microfilms, Inc.

After I received the committee's annotations, I realized that they provided an excellent beginning but that certain key resources and a few important topics had been omitted. I also felt that the bibliography was incomplete without an introduction outlining current thinking about early literacy development. Susan Burks, Muriel Rand, and I therefore composed an introduction to describe the areas of early literacy development under which the resources in the bibliography are categorized; we also identified missing topics and supplied some new annotations.

We hope that the information presented in both the introduction and in the bibliography proper will be useful to teachers seeking information in this field. We also recommend that schools have subscriptions to professional journals, such as *The Reading Teacher* and *Language Arts*, so teachers can keep abreast of the latest developments. These subscriptions, along with texts such as those described in this bibliography, can form the beginning of a professional library for teachers—something that should exist in all schools.

Lesley Mandel Morrow,
Chair, 1989-1991
Reading/Language in
Early Childhood Committee

Introduction

When the children arrive each day for Miss Cullen's kindergarten, they enter a classroom that has been carefully prepared to provide them with rich experiences in literacy. The children begin their day by enthusiastically exploring the room's learning centers, each of which focuses on a different curricular area. Each center contains literacy materials such as books related to specific topics and writing instruments.

Later Miss Cullen calls the children together for the morning message, which she has written on the chalkboard. On this day the message reads, "Tomorrow Kyle's mother is coming to school to help us use our computer. She works with computers at her job." Miss Cullen points out that the word *computer* starts with the letter *C*, just like the *C* in her last name. She asks the children to look at the message to see if they can find letters that are in their names; many are successful in doing so.

After the morning message, the children enjoy story time. For today's story, Miss Cullen has prepared a flannel board presentation of Eric Carle's *The Very Busy Spider*, which she introduces to the children by asking them to listen for the animal sounds they will hear. The children join in the storytelling on the repeated phrases and make animal sounds at the appropriate times. When the story is finished, Miss Cullen tells the children that the book and flannel board pieces now will be placed in the library corner and that they can use them for independent reading and writing activities.

During the time set aside for this self-directed reading and writing, one group of children cuddles up on a small sofa, engrossed in a new book. Karen and Renisha retell *The Very Busy Spider* with flannel board pieces. Kyle and Justin write a book about a fierce dragon, using both conventional and invented spelling They had completed one picture for the story at the beginning of the day while working in the writing center, and they hope to have the book finished soon so it can be added to the classroom library. Another child, Gary, is attempting to read a book to the teacher. He can read some of the words, but he depends a great deal on the pictures.

Later in the day the children share their work with one another, occasionally performing a puppet show they have writ-

ten or telling about a book they have enjoyed. Today Miss Cullen also has an episode of the American public television program *Reading Rainbow* to show the children. (She borrowed a videocassette of the episode from her school district's media center, which purchased a set of tapes and is responsible for ensuring that their broadcast complies with copyright regulations.) The episode features a book Miss Cullen has just acquired for the classroom library. She wants to pique the children's interest in the book since it deals with a topic they are studying in science.

Tomorrow will be a special day because Kyle's mother is coming to show the children how to use their classroom computer to write notes to one another. The children leave school excited about the next day and eager to share today's learning at home. Miss Cullen reminds them all to read a book before going to bed, and to be sure to include their mothers, fathers, grandparents, or other special people in this story time.

The classroom just described is child-centered and organized to allow children to engage in meaningful literacy activities, both independently and in collaboration with peers and adults. Miss Cullen has planned activities and experiences for these children based on her knowledge of current theory and effective teaching strategies in early literacy development. She is aware of new thinking about how children can best learn to read and write and has based her teaching on that thinking.

A conceptual change regarding children's early reading and writing development has taken place since the late 1960s. The term "emergent literacy" is used to describe the new view of literacy development as continuous and emerging right from birth (Clay, 1966). Children are considered emergent readers and writers until they reach the stage of conventional reading and writing. Their initial attempts at reading and writing—flipping through pages of a book and making up the story, parroting text, and scribbling, for example—are viewed as "real" literacy behavior. In addition, reading and writing, once considered separate curricular areas, are now seen as interrelated and developing concurrently with listening and oral language.

Children come to school with a background of experiences which they use to understand the functions of oral and written language (International Reading Association, 1987). Generally, they have already developed an understanding of the learning process and know how to use language. Many children can read "environmental print," such as signs and labels, before entering school and they can differentiate between drawing and writing.

Children at this stage have begun to associate books with reading, and they are learning that print conveys meaning and that reading and writing are used to communicate. This rich background of experiences is influenced by children's early cultural and language environments and becomes the stepping stone for further literacy development. Indeed, their life experiences play a vital role in children's acquisition of literacy ability (Goodman, 1984; Mason & McCormick, 1981).

Literacy develops in the everyday contexts of school, home, and community. We now know that literacy learning happens best in an atmosphere of social collaboration with peers and others who are more literate. In the classroom, this atmosphere is created in part by providing meaningful and functional literacy experiences centered around children's literature and children's interests. This knowledge stems from the belief that children must interact with the social and physical environments through exploration, experimentation, and negotiation (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969).

Meaningful social interaction is important to children's development in all areas of literacy. Holdaway (1979) identifies four steps children need to follow in becoming readers. Children need to (1) *observe* adults and peers involved with literacy, (2) *collaborate* with them, (3) *practice* literacy behaviors they are learning either alone or with others, and (4) share literacy learning through *performance* (such as reading to a friend or "publishing" a story written for the classroom library). Vygotsky's ideas also have contributed to our understanding of the need for social interaction in literacy development. According to Vygotsky (1978), a child learns when an adult or more competent peer helps by "scaffolding" literacy activities; this means providing support when it is needed and playing a less active role when the child begins to be able to function independently. Teale (1982) also discusses the importance of supporting children's early attempts in literacy activities.

In addition to the concrete support offered by interaction with adults and peers, the social environment also provides literacy learning with a meaningful context. Through observations of others and through their own attempts at communication, children learn that language, written and spoken, has a purpose. This happens long before children actually learn how to read and write, but knowing about the functional aspects of literacy is an important first step in acquiring literacy abilities. This is why providing opportunities for meaningful literacy events, such as reading road signs or checking a grocery list, promotes early reading development.

All of this new understanding of early literacy has an impact on specific areas of literacy development such as oral language, reading, writing, and the home environment. What follows is a brief overview of these areas and others, organized to correspond with the categories by which the bibliography entries are grouped.

The Home Environment

Much of our knowledge about literacy development comes from studies of children who were able to read before beginning school. Usually these children had not been taught formally, but were stimulated by home environments where literacy was seen as important and was valued. Reading and writing materials of all kinds and the existence of many opportunities to engage in a wide range of literacy activities alone, with other children, and with adults were common to these homes (Durkin, 1966; Goodman, 1984; Teale, 1981). According to Leichter (1984), the influence of home and family on a child's literacy development can be seen in three areas: (1) social interactions focusing on literacy and shared by parents, siblings, and other individuals; (2) a physical environment that includes a great variety of literacy materials; and (3) an emotional climate that conveys the parents' positive attitudes toward literacy and their hopes for their child's literacy achievement.

Oral Language

The home environment of early readers encourages language use to communicate and to accomplish tasks (Snow, 1983). Literacy development is enhanced by language competence since the sequences and patterns of written language parallel those in oral language (Goodman, 1967). A child with a strong background of oral language structures can anticipate and verify written words in a text.

Although language acquisition is partially dependent on developmental maturity, we have come to realize that children actively construct language (Dyson, 1981; Halliday, 1973; Snow, 1983; Sulzby, 1991; Wells, 1986). Children imitate the language they hear in social situations and invent their own forms of language to communicate meaning when they do not know the conventional words to do so. The first words they learn are those that are meaningful to them and help them acquire something

they need. The child's need to interact in social situations provides the impetus for language use.

Children continue to generate language when their early efforts are accepted and reinforced. Environments rich in language models that provide opportunities for a child to practice language and receive constructive feedback will improve that child's production of language.

Writing and Drawing

Writing—like reading, speaking, and listening—is one important component of literacy; together these components work as a unified system of communication. Children invent and reinvent the different structures and arrangements of written language through experimentation. This experimenting allows children to construct and then refine their knowledge of written language, which eventually contributes to independent reading and to an understanding of reading and writing as integrated activities.

Drawing and scribbling are children's first attempts at writing behavior and begin long before any formal instruction. Initially children do not distinguish between drawing and writing since both convey meaning to them (Calkins, 1986; Dyson, 1988; Newkirk, 1989; Palmer & Coon, 1984). Gradually, however, children develop as writers by having repeated, meaningful, real-life experiences with writing. This development often progresses this way:

By age 2, some children are able to produce and differentiate between writing and drawing. After experimenting with scribble writing, children next approximate letter-like forms and then progress to the production of discernible strings of letters. At some point before they are considered conventional writers, children invent spellings of words based on their knowledge of letter-sound relationships. Such invented spelling continues for an extended period and is frequently interspersed with other writing levels (Sulzby, 1985).

Children develop as writers in an environment that provides ample materials for experimenting and also a social, functional context for writing. This may include incorporating written language in greeting cards, thank you notes, and message exchange boards. An important component of any writing program is the opportunity for children to share their writing so they develop a sense of audience and see a reason for writing.

Children's Literature

A positive attitude toward reading is important for motivating young readers to practice the skills required to become competent (Anderson et al., 1985). Reading from children's literature is extremely valuable in increasing children's desire to read. In addition, storybook reading helps develop literacy skills, enhances background knowledge, and familiarizes children with book language (Cullinan, 1977). Young children can be attracted to books through creative storytelling techniques, such as felt stories, puppets, and taped stories (Morrow, 1989). Quality children's literature is a meaningful focus for developing literacy skills and comprehension.

Developing Comprehension

Competent readers use strategies that help them construct meaning from the text they read. Even young children need comprehension skills to understand a text they have heard. Literal comprehension involves understanding details, facts, and sequences in the story; inferential comprehension focuses on predicting outcomes or interpreting feelings; and critical comprehension centers on judging, concluding, hypothesizing, and analyzing. These comprehension skills can be developed in young children with the following classroom strategies.

Storybooks can be read more than once. Children enjoy repeated readings of their favorites, and familiarity with the text leads to their becoming less literal in their interpretations of books. When children use this familiarity to retell stories they have heard, they develop a sense of story structure and thereby enhance their comprehension (Morrow, 1985). Retelling (as well as role-playing) requires children to draw on their comprehension of the text in order to reconstruct the story.

Comprehension is improved when children have strategies for organizing and retrieving information they have heard. One such strategy is the Directed Listening and Thinking Activity (Morrow, 1989). The teacher begins a story reading session with a discussion that provides background information and gives the children a purpose for listening. The story is then read in a way that allows for interactions centered on the text. After the reading a discussion relates the text back to the original purpose for listening and ties the story to the children's real-life experiences.

Children need to have experiences with books in which

they help create the meaning of the text through their own active participation (Holdaway, 1979). Children should therefore be encouraged to respond to questions and to participate freely during discussions about books. Predictable books encourage children to participate in the story readings themselves because young listeners can usually memorize these books' repeated phrases and rhymes. Big Books foster participation since the print and pictures are easily seen.

Learning About Print

Children learn about print (including such things as being able to recognize the letters of the alphabet, developing phonemic awareness, knowing the direction in which text is read, and recognizing context clues) most effectively when teaching is meaningful and functional. Children first need to understand that spoken words which communicate ideas can be written down and read back again. The language experience approach (Allen, 1976; Veatch et al., 1973) is one way to help children grasp this idea. Children's spoken language, usually about a personal experience, is written down on large paper and read back to the children. The chart can be saved for future use in related literacy activities. Children begin to associate the words they speak with the letters written on the charts. The teacher makes a point of identifying phoneme/grapheme correspondences that are meaningful for the children, such as showing them letters in the chart that appear in the children's names.

An environment that includes functional print helps children develop sight vocabulary and concepts about sound/symbol relationships. Even very young children can identify the meaning of print that they see often—such things as road signs or the writing on cereal boxes (Harste, Woodward, & Burke, 1984). Models of such functional print should be clearly visible in classrooms.

Knowledge about print is also developed when children choose words to write and collect on cards. These "Very Own Words" (Ashton-Warner, 1963) reflect children's own experiences and interests. The words help develop sight vocabulary and knowledge about letters and sounds.

Finally, the children's literature shared in class provides a meaningful, interesting context for learning about print. Literature contains rhymes, word families, and spelling patterns that can be used as a basis for lessons on specific topics.

Play, Television, and Computers

For young children, play is natural and can therefore provide a meaningful context for literacy learning. Simply including reading and writing materials in play areas will lead to literacy becoming a part of play themes. (Teachers can model the use of the materials provided by making lists and signs, for example, or reading a mock patient's chart in the hospital play area.) Knowledge about print and comprehension skills are fostered by the social interaction of play (Morrow & Rand, 1991).

Television and computers are part of many children's worlds these days. It is important to look for positive ways to encourage literacy with this technology. Guided television viewing can provide background knowledge and motivation for involvement in literature. Critical discussions about programs can enhance comprehension development. Computers can benefit children's writing because using them to compose and edit requires less effort than doing so by hand. A growing body of information provides us with insight into the possibilities for developing literacy through new technology.

Assessment

It is important to assess literacy development to determine how much progress children are making and what areas need attention. Assessment should take into consideration the goals and objectives of the curriculum and focus on all areas of literacy. Most measurement instruments assess only a narrow range of skills and may miss some of a child's competencies (Teale, Hiebert, & Chittenden, 1987). Therefore, a wide range of skills should be evaluated in a variety of contexts. Children may perform differently on a paper-and-pencil task than in a one-to-one conference.

Some possibilities for evaluating children's progress include checklists to organize teachers' observations of children's behavior. Anecdotal records kept on file cards or in notebooks can provide detailed information about a child's work. Tape recordings and videotapes give insight into a child's language development and oral reading abilities. Writing samples collected over a period of time will provide information about the child's progress and ability. All of these items can be collected in a portfolio which becomes the child's personal assessment record. Material for each portfolio should be collected frequently (at least

three to four times a year) so that development can be accurately monitored.

Conclusion

We now know that children's literacy development begins early in life, when they first hear spoken language and then start to produce sounds and symbols to communicate. Children's oral language development, their listening skills, and their experiences with reading and writing together form the basis for their emerging literacy. Recent research in aspects of all these areas of literacy has provided educators with a view of their interrelationships and has highlighted the vital role that meaningful experiences play in the acquisition of literacy. This perspective of early literacy development has broad implications for instructional practices and continuing research.

The annotated bibliography that follows describes materials that can help make current thinking about early literacy learning accessible to all teachers, parents, and administrators.

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*Because of space considerations, not all the outstanding resources in early literacy could be listed in the annotated bibliography that follows. Some of the references cited in this introduction, for example, do not appear in the bibliography. Nevertheless, all the materials referenced here are high-quality works and are recommended for further reading.

General Issues

Books

Clay, M.M. (1991). *Becoming literate: The construction of inner control.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

> Encourages educators to examine critically and correct their beliefs about literacy development and details the changes that occur over time in young children's control over their own literacy learning. Clay traces the development of literacy strategies young children use, noting that successful readers implement strategies that extend their control over their literacy learning and that actually generate more independent literacy learning. She advocates providing less successful readers with extra resources and supportive student-teacher interactions in order to increase the number of risks they are willing to take in the furthering of their own literacy development.

Cochran-Smith, M. (1984). *The making of a reader.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

> Documents both what and how young children learn about print. Discusses a variety of ways in which adults may actively socialize children into particular patterns of literacy by helping them obtain the literary and social knowledge necessary to use and understand print effectively. Cochran-Smith's observations focus on adults and children participating in a cooperative preschool during an 18-month period. The book highlights the children's burgeoning understanding and use of print as well as the underlying processes that facilitate such understanding.

Goelman, H., Oberg, A., & Smith, F. (Eds.) (1984). *Awakening to literacy.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

> Discusses how young children become literate without formal education. The 18 chapters in this book were submitted by distinguished researchers with extensive and overlapping backgrounds in anthropology, linguistics, psychology, sociology, and education. The book reflects a number of conflicting approaches and research methodologies, thus ensuring its widespread appeal.

Hall, N. (1987). *The emergence of literacy.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Enlists the work of several researchers to support the position that children's self-constructed knowledge is superior to knowledge that has been externally imposed. Contemporary views about the manner in which young children make sense of their experiences with print are described, and ways in which teachers may use those experiences to create classroom environments and curricula that will nurture children's prior knowledge are proposed.

Harste, J., Woodward, V., & Burke, C. (1984). *Language stories and literacy lessons.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Encourages teachers and researchers to go beyond "kidwatching" to actively compare, contrast, and evaluate what young children know about literacy in order to develop more appropriate instructional strategies. Harste, Woodward, and Burke focus on children as knowledgeable constructors of their own literacy learning. Through anecdotal accounts of children's literacy behaviors, this readable book places recognized concepts, such as scribbling and invented spelling, within an all-encompassing theoretical framework.

Holdaway, D. (1979). *The foundations of literacy.* New York: Ashton Scholastic.

Examines the problematic issue of why children who learn to speak easily and joyfully encounter failure and frustration when learning to read and write. From the perspective of developmental learning theorists, Holdaway carefully considers the evidence and arrives at conclusions that clarify many of the complex and frequently disputed issues in education. He suggests definite and practical educational solutions to this dilemma; in a forceful yet constructive spirit, his new synthesis of ideas challenges the inefficiencies of schooling.

McGee, L.M., & Richgels, D.J. (1990). *Literacy's beginnings: Supporting young readers and writers.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Details a program to promote literacy development from birth through age 8. The authors generate new perspectives of literacy development based on the related research of the past several years. The profuse anecdotal records included in the book function to clarify a number of different issues.

Morrow, L.M. (1993). *Literacy development in the early years: Helping children read and write* (2nd ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Reflects the current research on emergent literacy topics.

Encompasses the whole language, interdisciplinary approach to promoting literacy development as it advocates the purposeful inclusion of listening, reading, writing, and oral language skills throughout the school curriculum. Morrow considers young children to be actively involved in their own literacy development as they participate in social contexts with adults and peers and experience firsthand literacy behaviors that are functional and meaningful. Children's literature is one of the most critical instructional materials employed in the text to ensure the joy of early literacy experiences and thus promote lifelong reading habits as well. An integrated language arts thematic unit on nutrition is included.

Neuman, S.B., & Roskos, K. (1993). *Language and literacy learning in the early years: An integrated approach.* Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Helps teachers build on children's prior knowledge of oral language, reading, and writing and enhances developmentally appropriate language and literacy activities in the prekindergarten years. Advocates an integrated approach to literacy learning in which young children are actively engaged in meaningful and functional language and literacy events. The authors provide a number of practical classroom applications including planning the curriculum, designing the physical setting, and assessing children's language and literacy growth.

Taylor, D. (1983). *Family literacy: Young children learn to read and write.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Employs a variety of research and evaluation measures to identify the environmental conditions and social interactions that most strongly influence the literacy development of young children. The research suggests that parents' own past and present literacy development, older siblings' literacy habits, and the availability of reading and writing materials all substantially contribute to the development of literacy in young children. Literacy is an intensely personal yet unquestionably social process, whose outward manifestation requires experience with a wide range of literacy activities.

Yaden, D., & Templeton, S. (Eds.). (1986). *Metalinguistic awareness and beginning literacy: Conceptualizing what it means to read and write.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Written for advanced education courses, teachers, administrators, and publishers. Through a multidisciplinary approach, this volume explores the relationship between metalinguistic awareness and literacy development in young chil-

dren. The chapters highlight important issues such as the role of oral language, the influence of the home and school environments, and the measurement of metalinguistic awareness in young children. Of particular note is the section devoted to the development of metalinguistic awareness in visually and auditorily impaired children.

Journal Articles

Anbar, A. (1986). Reading acquisition of preschool children without systematic instruction. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 1*(1), 69-83.

Describes the acquisition of written language knowledge and skills by six preschoolers. The author concludes that the parental role in skill acquisition is considerable. Parents can encourage rather than push their children toward literacy development by supporting their early literacy explorations. If parents use informal instructional methods, children will learn about literacy without suffering from negative affective consequences.

Henderson, A.T. (1988). Parents are a school's best friend. *Phi Delta Kappan, 70*(2), 148-153.

Attributes students' academic successes, positive attitudes, and beneficial behaviors, as well as schools' overall effectiveness, to parental involvement in education. Henderson cites research demonstrating the rewards of such parent participation, noting, however, that school personnel often resist the implementation of parent-participation programs. She concludes that, to be most effective, educators must learn to appreciate and capitalize on the services parents may offer, develop a strong bond between home and school, and improve parent-child relationships.

Strickland, D.S., & Morrow, L.M. (Column Eds.). (1988-1991). Emerging readers and writers. *The Reading Teacher*, 42-44.

Deals with issues related to early literacy development. This column, which appeared in *The Reading Teacher* for three years, presents extremely practical ideas for classroom use. In the 1990-1991 columns, guest authors wrote articles related to their areas of expertise.

The Home Environment

Books

Butler, D., & Clay, M.M. (1987). *Reading begins at home.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

> Guides parents interested in advancing their children's literacy learning. The authors provide a concise overview of emergent literacy theory as well as some straightforward strategies parents can use to make learning meaningful and enjoyable for their children. They address common concerns parents have about their children's education and list books of interest to both parents and children.

Clay, M.M. (1988). *Writing begins at home: Preparing children for writing before they go to school.* Portsmouth NH: Heinemann.

> Presents parents and teachers of preschoolers with an overview of children's early writing attempts. Clay shows what children think about the written symbols in their environment and about the lines and squiggles they create on paper. The author suggests ways in which parents may support their children's early literacy discoveries and discusses issues that may alleviate concerns parents have about their children's schooling.

Edwards, P.A. (1989). Supporting lower SES mothers' attempts to provide scaffolding for book reading. J. Allen & J. Mason (Eds.), *Risk makers, risk takers, risk breakers* (pp. 222-250). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

> Reviews the literature on the inadequacies of parent-child interactions in low SES households. In five such homes, where parents seldom question children and rarely use rich detail when labeling objects for youngsters, Edwards actively intervened to improve the interactions between mother, child, and storybook. The project successfully altered the literacy-based interactions between one mother-child dyad in particular, suggesting not only the importance of at-home, one-to-one shared book experiences in promoting literacy development, but also the urgent need for ongoing intervention in low SES homes and continued, expanded literacy training for parents.

Edwards, P.A. (1991). Fostering early literacy through parent coaching. In E.H. Hiebert (Ed.), *Literacy in a diverse society* (pp. 199-214). New York: Teachers College Press.

Describes a study in which 25 nonmainstream mothers enlisted in a program to learn strategies for increasing their participation in shared book reading experiences with their children. With the support of the community and school, the mothers were able to learn and implement effectively the strategies they were taught. As a result, their children's literacy skills and level of participation in joint reading experiences improved. Edwards concludes that more programs that provide parents of low socioeconomic status with viable reading strategies are necessary to improve the literacy learning of nonmainstream children.

Goodman, Y. (1984). The development of initial literacy. In H. Goelman, A. Oberg, & F. Smith (Eds.), *Awakening to literacy* (pp. 102-109). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Invokes a sociocultural theory of literacy development while advocating teaching literacy in purposeful and functional contexts. The author defines literacy as "learning how to mean" and states that literacy develops through both meaningful experiences with literacy and frequent encounters with attitudes and values that support literacy learning. She argues against instructional models that focus on teaching isolated skills that are devoid of meaning and relevance, promoting instead the view that children learn language, reading, and writing through an interactive, social process.

Schickedanz, J. (1986). *More than ABCs: The early stages of reading and writing.* Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Assists parents and teachers in making literacy learning "a playful, interesting, useful" experience for children. The author refutes the traditional belief that literacy development must take place in a formal education setting as she subscribes to the view that children have the capacity and the desire to learn about literacy when it surrounds them daily in familiar contexts.

Schieffelin, B., & Cochran-Smith, M. (1982). Learning to read culturally: Literacy before schooling. In H. Goelman, A. Oberg, & F. Smith (Eds.), *Awakening to literacy* (pp. 3-23). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Describes and analyzes the authors' view that the value and utility that a culture assigns to the development of early literacy is very important. Children rise only to the level of literacy

held in high regard by members of their households and their communities. The authors' examination of the literacy learning in three distinct cultures serves to underscore this importance.

Strickland, D.S., & Morrow, L.M. (Eds.). (1989). *Emerging literacy: Young children learn to read and write.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (ED 305 602)

Maintains that children's literacy is a continuous process that begins in infancy with exposure to oral and written language in books and stories in the home environment. The authors discuss crucial issues of early literacy development: theoretical perspectives in early literacy development, oral language development, family storybook reading, literature and early literacy, skill development, writing, assessment, designing rich literacy environments, and organizing literacy learning. Although scholarly in content and grounded in research, this book is practical and usable for all educators of young children and is filled with worthwhile ideas to implement in the classroom.

Teale, W.H., & Sulzby, E. (Eds.). (1986). *Emergent literacy: Writing and reading.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Presents a series of landmark studies on early literacy development. The chapters are written by outstanding professionals from diverse educational backgrounds. The book offers a historical perspective on literacy development and clearly defines and contrasts reading readiness and emergent literacy.

Journal Articles

Potter, G. (1989). Parent participation in the language arts program. *Language Arts, 66*(1), 21-28.

Distinguishes between the terms *participation* and *involvement* by stating that of the two, participation implies a greater commitment to a particular cause. Parents who actively participate in their child's school life are more dedicated than those who are simply involved, and they therefore feel a heightened sense of ownership of and responsibility toward the school. Potter outlines and describes the various levels of participation while acknowledging the pervasive reluctance on the part of schools to allow parents to participate in their decision-making processes. Potter concludes the article by insisting that parents and school personnel must work together to guarantee student success.

Teale, W.H. (1981). Parents reading to their children: What we know and what we need to know. *Language Arts*, 58(8), 902-912.

Reviews theoretical and empirical research and effectively summarizes what is understood about the significant contributions parents can make to their children's early literacy development by reading to them regularly. The author observes that both the quantity and the quality of shared reading experiences affect young children's emergent literacy and provides strategies designed to improve the interactions between parents and children during such experiences.

Brochures

Literacy development in early childhood (preschool to grade 3). (1987). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Establishes a list of objectives for prefirst-grade reading programs. This brochure, prepared by the Reading/Language in Early Childhood Committee, discusses what young children know about oral and written language prior to receiving formal education, shares concerns about present practices in early literacy development programs, and provides valuable recommendations for change.

The International Reading Association publishes a number of relevant brochures concerning parental involvement and participation in young children's early literacy development. Titles include *Your home is your child's first school, You can encourage your child to read,* and *Good books make reading fun for your child.* Single copies of each brochure are available free on request with a #10 self-addressed stamped envelope with first class postage for one ounce. Send requests to IRA, PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139, USA.

Videocassettes

Wlodowski, R.J. (1991). *Motivation to learn.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Contains two videotapes, a leader's manual, and the book *Eager to learn: Helping children become motivated and love learning.* The first tape focuses on strengthening the bond between child, parent, and school in order to support student learning and encourage student success. The second tape provides suggestions for teachers about how to effectively conduct parent-teacher conferences to best serve students' individual needs.

Oral Language

Books

Halliday, M.A.K. (1973). *Explorations in the function of language.* London, UK: Edward Arnold.

> Asserts that language learning for children is a process of learning how to mean. Although they do not attend to the structural elements of oral language, children internalize such elements when they both use and hear language used purposefully within specified contexts in a variety of social situations. Children learn not only when they hear others use language to make meaning, but also when others respond to them as if they, too, use language appropriately. This work has had a significant impact on contemporary views of children's oral language development.

Silvern, S.B., & Silvern, L.R. (1990). *Beginning literacy and your child.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

> Discusses the emergence of literacy in young children, emphasizing the critical role that oral language plays in children's early development. The authors stress the importance of talking to children and suggest ways in which parents may encourage children to talk. As parents promote oral language, they also need to foster an awareness of print and a knowledge of books to fully support early literacy development.

Sulzby, E. (1991). Roles of oral and written language as children approach conventional literacy. In M. Orsolini & C. Pontecorvo (Eds.), *Early text construction in children* (pp. 56-75). Rome, Italy: La Nuova Italia.

> Defines and describes children's transition from emergent to conventional forms of literacy. Emphasizing the interrelationship between reading, writing, and oral language throughout all stages of literacy development, Sulzby constructs a number of different taxonomies of linguistic behaviors and understandings aimed to direct and focus educational measures as well as future research in the area.

Tizard, B., & Hughes, M. (1984). *Young children learning.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

> Examines the differences between conversations that 4-year-

old girls from working- and middle-class families have with their teachers in a nursery school and those that they have at home with their mothers. As a result of the findings, the authors recommend some substantive changes that should be made to rectify the inadequacies of nursery school education compared to at-home education.

Wells, G. (1986). *The meaning makers: Children learning language and using language to learn.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Describes the results of a longitudinal study aimed at determining how young children learn language. Details a general sequence of development while attending to individual variations within that sequence. Wells concludes that language learning is a social process and thus focuses on the critical role adults assume in promoting the language development of young children. He also stresses the active role children play in constructing their own language. (A cassette of the longer dialogues that are only partially transcribed in this book is available from Heinemann.)

Journal Articles

Berk, L.E. (1985). Why children talk to themselves. *Young Children, 40*(5), 46-52.

Discusses the phenomenon of young children's private speech and describes when it is commonly employed as well as the various theories about its use. Berk reviews the research on the individual differences within children's private speech—differences that reflect children's verbal ability, gender, and personality. She concludes the article with suggestions for adults who are interested in capitalizing on young children's private speech, proposing that learning experiences for children should involve social interaction and should be modified to suit their individual needs.

Dyson, A.H. (1981). Oral language: The rooting system for learning to write. *Language Arts, 58*(7), 776-784.

Explores the processes and procedures underlying young children's transition from speech to writing. Anecdotal references throughout the text illustrate Dyson's concept of oral language as a primary means through which young children learn to write. Talk is inextricably intertwined with the writing process as it increases the meaning-making capability of young children's writing. Oral language provides children with ideas and experiences to write about, enables them to

elaborate on their written work, allows them to attain information, helps them to encode words, and contributes to their self-evaluations.

Genishi, C. (1988). Children's language: Learning words from experiences. *Young Children, 44*(1), 16-23.

Provides a practical, readable, and informational review of the research on the oral language of young children. Genishi discusses the historical roots of this research, emphasizing the points of agreement and of contention that have permeated this area of study. Her principal focus is the role of the physical and social environment in fostering the development of oral language. She discusses strategies parents and educators may implement to facilitate language growth.

Griffith, P.L., & Olson, M.W. (1992). Phonemic awareness helps beginning readers break the code. *The Reading Teacher, 45*(7), 516-523.

Defines phonemic awareness as an understanding of the structure of spoken language and explains that the level of phonemic awareness attained by a young child functions as a viable indicator of his or her future reading achievement. The authors provide valuable methods of assessing a child's level of phonemic awareness and describe effective ways of developing such an awareness. A helpful list of children's literature that plays with sounds in language is included.

Snow, C.E. (1983). Literacy and language: Relationships during the preschool years. *Harvard Educational Review, 53*(2), 165-189.

Describes the important similarities between language acquisition and literacy development in young children. Snow emphasizes the vital role that parents play in promoting language learning, and hence in facilitating the early development of reading and writing. While acknowledging social class differences in school achievement, Snow denies that such inequalities are the result of variations in the level of literacy at home. The author theorizes instead that children's success in school depends on both their literacy skills and their ability to decode and produce decontextualized language. While the former skill may be learned in school, the latter skill is learned principally in homes that encourage and teach the decoding and production of decontextualized language.

Writing and Drawing

Books

Bissex, G.L. (1980). *GNYS AT WORK: A child learns to write and read.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

> Takes the reader on a journey with the author's son as his early writing develops and progresses. This comprehensible book is a thorough and extensive case study demonstrating how learning to write and read is achieved through experimentation with and exploration of written and oral language connections. It challenges educators to examine their own beliefs and practices.

Calkins, L. (1986). *The art of teaching writing* (pp. 47-65). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

> Asserts that young children use drawing as a rehearsal for writing and suggests that both the act of drawing and the picture itself provide scaffolding for writing. Because young children's writing abilities are limited, especially in relation to their oral capacities, they may be overwhelmed by the writing process. In such a case, they prefer to draw as a means to convey their messages, often interspersing their drawings with elaborate oral compositions. Calkins states that the switch from drawing to writing represents a move away from the security and stability of one medium toward the challenge and uncertainty of another.

Clay, M.M. (1979). *What did I write? Beginning writing behavior.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

> Demonstrates through graphic illustrations the developmental patterns of children's early writing attempts. Clay highlights the relationship between children's understanding of print and their early reading attempts, incorporating actual examples of young children's work. This book provides a concise introduction to emergent writing for teachers, students, and parents.

Dyson, A.H. (1989). *Multiple worlds of child writers: Friends learning to write.* New York: Teachers College Press.

> Emphasizes the importance of the social function and base of writing. Dyson provides developmental histories of four "cre-

ators of imaginary worlds" to demonstrate how children develop as writers by immersing their texts in their social, affective, and intellectual lives in order to symbolize their experiences and form social relationships with others. The author views young children's writing both as an outgrowth of talking and drawing and as contingent on the quality of the child's life within and without the classroom setting.

Farr, M. (Ed.). (1985). *Advances in writing research: Volume 1, Children's early writing development.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Describes children's emerging literacy. By implementing an array of different research methodologies, the contributing authors provide the reader with an awareness of what children know about literacy prior to schooling as well as with suggestions about how to build upon such prior knowledge during formal instruction. The chapters highlight the social, communicative nature of written language and thus encourage teachers to include meaningful writing activities throughout an integrated curriculum to foster literacy learning. The introduction places each study within the context of recent research on children's writing development.

Hubbard, R. (1989). *Authors of pictures, draughtsmen of words.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Emphasizes that because drawing constitutes a significant portion of the meaning making of children, it should be considered a form of literate behavior. To underscore this position, Hubbard cites examples of famous authors who used illustrations to assist them in their writing and help them communicate their messages. Hubbard recommends that teachers encourage students to use whichever mode of communication best serves their purpose.

Newkirk, T. (1989). *More than stories: The range of children's writing* (pp. 35-66). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Considers drawing to be as important to young children as writing and thus disputes the claim that drawing is merely a rehearsal for writing. For young children, drawings, text, and verbalizations together constitute writing; they interact to duplicate, complement, or otherwise support one another in the meaning-making process. Newkirk concludes that the definition of writing must be expanded to include all the modes of communication involved in the production of a text.

Temple, C., Nathan, R., & Burris, N. (1982). *The beginnings of writing.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Presents a detailed account of how young children write. The

authors provide parents and teachers with strategies for encouraging children to write, for giving writing assignments, and for making writing an enjoyable and relevant activity. Through actual examples of children's writing, this book explores how children communicate through print, examines the various stages of spelling through which young writers pass, and elaborates on the various visual, semantic, and syntactic cues that children use to generate meaning. The exercises at the end of each section make this a particularly valuable book for students of education.

Zalusky, V.L. (1982). Relationships: What did I write? What did I draw? In W. Frawley (Ed.), *Linguistics and literacy* (pp. 91-124). New York: Plenum.

Emphasizes that drawing, speaking, acting, and writing are inextricably intertwined modes of communication for young children. Interpretation of any one mode necessitates consideration of the other modes. Zalusky proposes that further research on the relationship between drawing and writing may provide additional information concerning both the relationship between drawing and literacy in general and the cognitive structures used in language development.

Journal Articles

Bridge, S.B. (1985). Meaning making: Parallels between drawing and writing. *Highway One*, *8*(1-2), 195-208.

Concludes that because both drawing and writing are designed to compose and convey meaningful messages, they are mutually supportive cognitive processes. Drawing and writing involve sequencing, revising, and meaning-making skills as they encourage children to focus, organize, and describe their thoughts on paper. When children label their drawings orally or in writing, they demonstrate an understanding of symbols that is fundamental to the writing process.

Dyson, A.H. (1988). Appreciate the drawing and dictation of young children. *Young Children*, *43*(3), 25-32.

Shares observations of a public, urban kindergarten class during a 5-month study of its members' journal writing habits. Dyson focuses on the children's drawing and writing behaviors, spontaneous talk, and dictations during their journal writing time. She concludes that as children move around, draw, talk, sing, and write during journal time, they

reflect, organize, and communicate their thoughts and experiences. She notes in particular that children use their drawings to organize, support, and develop their dictated or written texts.

Grinnell, P., & Burris, N. (1983). Drawing and writing: The emerging graphic communication process. *Topics in Learning and Learning Disabilities, 3*, 21-31.

Discusses the interrelationship between drawing and writing. Submits that drawing often functions as a precursor to writing, but that children learn to differentiate between the two at an early age and simultaneously employ both mediums of expression. The authors also address the emphasis that schools traditionally place on accuracy and its effects on children's drawing and writing behaviors.

Hayes, L. (1990). From scribbling to writing: Smoothing the way. *Young Children, 45*(3), 62-78.

Presents many teaching strategies and classroom activities to complement a process writing approach and enhance the natural writing development of young children.

Hipple, M.L. (1985). Journal writing in kindergarten. *Language Arts, 62*(3), 255-262.

Describes in vivid detail Hipple's experiences introducing journal writing to a "nonreading" kindergarten class. Her observations are enlightening and the methods of implementation and assessment she describes are grounded in theory and are infinitely practical. Hipple concludes that journal writing was the most productive aspect of her curriculum as it promoted the development of oral language, listening skills, reading, and writing.

Palmer, G., & Coon, G.E. (1984). Art and composition: Partners in communication. *Early Years, 15*(1), 61-64.

Regards art as a familiar means through which children may express themselves freely and creatively. As a prewriting activity, they view art as a way to make writing more enjoyable, meaningful, and profitable for young children. Art provides children with a chance to rehearse, revise, and elaborate on their ideas about writing.

Williams, R.M. (1977). Why children should draw: The surprising link between art and learning. *The Saturday Review*, September 3, 11-16.

Cites an example of an art-centered school in which children immersed in an art curriculum have achieved dramatic

results in traditional academic subjects. The article claims that because the arts provide children with a flexibility not allowed in other subjects, they stimulate children's curiosity, motivate them to learn, enhance their perception of themselves and the world, and may even increase the capacity of their brains.

Children's Literature

Part 1 Locating Children's Books

Books

Bauer, C.F. (1983). *The way to books.* New York: H.J. Wilson.

Compiles a variety of excellent ideas, programs, techniques, and activities designed to actively involve children in literature. The book provides the reader with much more than annotations of children's books as it explores seven principal areas of interest: storytelling, programs, book talks, poetry, games, crafts, and exhibits. Subject bibliographies appear throughout this profusely illustrated text.

Dryer, S.S. (1985). *The bookfinder: When kids need books.* Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.

Contains 725 extensive annotations about relevant topics such as sibling rivalry, peer pressure, moving, divorce, loneliness, making friends, and owning pets. The entries are referenced according to subject and cross-referenced by author, title, and subject. Appropriate age levels are suggested.

Gillespie, J.T., & Gilbert, C.B. (1985). *Best books for children: Preschool through the middle grades.* New York: R.R. Bowker.

Provides annotations of 7,000 children's books in one expansive volume. The authors categorize the books by subject and list suitable age ranges for each one. Four indexes—authors and illustrators, book titles, biographical subjects, and subjects—function to make this book readily manageable.

Korbin, B. (1988). *Eyeopeners! How to choose and use children's books about real people, places, and things.* New York: Penguin.

Features more than 500 nonfiction children's books coded according to appropriate age level. The books in this complete volume are indexed by subjects from ABC to zoo books. Korbin provides hints about how to locate suitable books and highlights 150 tips to promote exciting book-based activities.

Lipson, E.R. (1988). *The New York Times parent's guide to the best books for children.* New York: Times Books.

Gives nearly 1,000 annotations, compiled by the children's

editor of *The New York Times Book Review*, of both classic and recently published children's books. Categorizes book entries according to various reading levels: for example, wordless books, picture books, storybooks, early reading books, midlevel books, and young adult books. This volume is exceptionally well organized, usable, and practical as a result of the inclusion of dozens of special indexes.

Stoll, D.R. (Ed.). (1990). *Magazines for children*. Glassboro, NJ: Educational Press Association of America; Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Provides an annotated list of magazines published for children as well as the appropriate ordering addresses and target audiences. Includes a subject index and an age/grade index to facilitate efficient use of the volume. The introduction explains how magazines may be used to promote the development of literacy in children.

Journals

Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Contains critical reviews of children's literature evaluated by a committee of professionals. This journal is published monthly, excluding August.

The Reading Teacher. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Features the regular column "Children's Books." Evaluates children's literature and suggests a variety of ways teachers and parents may use trade books with children to promote literacy development and the enjoyment of books. Each month the column focuses on the content and appropriate age levels of books about a given theme, from a particular genre, or originating in certain countries. The journal also publishes articles and features on this topic.

Brochures

Children's Choices for 1992. (1992). New York: Children's Book Council; and Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Provides a listing of new children's trade books that children from across the U.S.A. determined they liked the best. To

receive a single free copy of this publication, send a self-addressed, stamped (for 4 ounces) envelope to the International Reading Association, PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139, USA.

Teacher's Choices for 1992. (1992). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Compiles a list of outstanding trade books for children and adolescents. The books identified and annotated by a committee of the International Reading Association are those that teachers throughout the United States have deemed to be exceptional for use within the school curriculum. To receive a single free copy of this publication, send a self-addressed, stamped (for 2 ounces) envelope to the International Reading Association, PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139, USA.

Videocassettes

Hearne, B. (1986). *Sharing picture books with young children.* Chicago, IL: American Library Association.

Introduces a wide range of books for the early stages of childhood development. Available for both VHS and Betamax machines.

Part 2 Using Children's Books

Books

Cullinan, B.E. (Ed.). (1987). *Children's literature in the reading program.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Focuses on different strategies teachers may employ to incorporate children's literature most effectively in the classroom environment. Suggestions range from shared reading and writing techniques, brainstorming, and webbing, to sequential and repetitive books, book discussions, and "lap reading." The book is a practical guide for teachers interested in promoting early literacy development through children's literature.

Cullinan, B.E. (1989). *Literature and the child* (2nd ed.). Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Proposes ways to create an environment in which children can respond to literature while at the same time cautions

against the inappropriate use of such an environment. Cullinan describes ways to develop an enthusiasm for books in young children through teaching activities and proper literature selections. Specific books are cited from various genres of children's literature, providing brief summaries of some books and appropriate activities for their use.

Doake, D.B. (1985). Reading-like behavior: Its role in learning to read. In A. Jaggar & M.T. Smith-Burke (Eds.), *Observing the language learner.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association; and Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Collects, presents, and discusses data based on a series of transcriptions of preschool children's shared book experiences at home, effectively relating the way in which preschool children learn to read with such early shared book experiences in the home environment. The chapter also describes the implications of the study for classroom teachers.

Kimmel, M.M. (1988). *For reading out loud: A guide to sharing books with children.* New York: Delacorte.

Offers a comprehensive guide to reading aloud to children from infancy to kindergarten. Includes thoughtful descriptions of more than 300 appropriate read-aloud titles by type, length, and subject. The entries include suggested age levels, time required for each session, and good stopping points.

Lamme, L.L., Cox, V., Matanzo, J., & Olson, M.W. (1980). *Raising readers: A guide to sharing literature with young children.* New York: Walker.

Addresses parents, teachers, and childcare workers who are involved with children from infants to beginning readers. This book is replete with practical and imaginative ideas and annotations of carefully selected books. It features a number of effective read-aloud activities.

Larrick, N. (1982). *A parent's guide to children's reading* (5th ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Westminster.

Overflows with valuable information for parents and teachers about how to motivate children of all ages to read. Provides hints about how to and what to read to children to stimulate their interest in reading. The volume includes annotations of books children particularly enjoy.

Morrow, L.M. (1981). *Super tips for storytelling.* New York: Scholastic.

Includes an informative introduction as well as practical ideas for telling stories to young children. Reproducible stories and

props are provided in their entirety. Morrow also lists other children's literature which lends itself to the particular story-telling techniques discussed here.

Trelease, J. (1989). *The new read-aloud handbook.* New York: Penguin.

Provides a rationale for reading aloud to young children as well as suggestions for when to begin, the different stages of read-aloud, and the dos and don'ts of such a technique. Trelease provides a personal, annotated treasury of hundreds of interesting books that are exceptionally well suited to the read-aloud method, including classic, traditional, and contemporary titles. The techniques detailed in this book may be adopted by parents, teachers, librarians, and other childcare workers.

Developing Comprehension

Journal Articles

Heald-Taylor, G. (1987). Predictable literature selections and activities for language arts instruction. *The Reading Teacher, 41*(1), 6-12.

> Lists predictable books and worthwhile related activities that promote early literacy development. The article will be particularly interesting and informative to teachers using literature-based programs. It also includes a reading behavior inventory that highlights those reading skills the author considers to be vital aspects of a language arts program.

Martinez, M., & Roser, N. (1985). Read it again: The value of repeated readings during storytime. *The Reading Teacher, 38*(8), 782-786.

> Recommends strategies for increasing the range of preschool children's responses to literature in both home and classroom environments. The authors advocate that parents and teachers: (1) carefully select appropriate literature for children; (2) read clearly and enthusiastically; and (3) provide suitable responses to both the literature selection itself and to children's questions and comments. Repetition is critical in improving children's responses to stories. Children tend to discuss familiar stories more often and in a different way than they do unfamiliar text. Children's talk displays their understanding of the text.

Morrow, L.M. (1988). Young children's responses to one-to-one story reading in school settings. *Reading Research Quarterly, 23*(1), 89-107.

> Reports on a study of 79 children in three urban daycare centers who were assigned to two experimental groups and one control group. In the first experimental group, a different book was read to the children each week, while in the second experimental group, children heard repeated readings of three different books. This study determined that frequent one-to-one readings in school increased the number and complexity of comments and questions from young children of low socioeconomic status. Repeated readings were most effective with children of low ability, resulting in more interpretive

responses from the children as well as more responses focusing on print and story structure.

Morrow, L.M., & Smith, J.K. (1990). The effects of group setting on interactive storybook reading. *Reading Research Quarterly, 25(3),* 213-231.

Investigates children's comprehension of stories and their verbal interactions during storybook readings in groups of varying sizes. Adults read storybooks to children in three settings: one-to-one, small group, and whole class. On a comprehension test, the children who heard stories in small groups performed better than children read to on a one-to-one basis or in a whole-group setting.

Schickedanz, J. (1978). Please read that story again! Exploring relationships between story reading and learning to read. *Young Children, 33*(5), 48-55.

Discusses social learning, language, and cognitive theories of how reading to children promotes successful early literacy development. Social learning theory focuses on the modeling that occurs when a story is read to a child and on the external reinforcers that promote continued future interest in books. Language theory states that children who have stories read to them are internally reinforced by their own language development and knowledge of books. Cognitive theory proposes schemes used by children to arrive at an understanding of the functions of books and suggests a number of conditions that should be met for the successful development of early literacy.

Learning About Print

Books

Adams, M.J. (1990). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

> Contrasts a skills-based, or phonics, approach to teaching reading with a comprehension, or meaning-based, approach. Adams stresses the necessity of developing phonemic segmentation skills while emphasizing the importance of teaching phonics in conjunction with meaningful activities.

Mills, H., O'Keefe, T., & Stephens, D. (1992). *Looking closely: Exploring the role of phonics in one whole language classroom.* Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

> Explores the role of phonics in the development of children's early literacy and demonstrates how phonics instruction is managed in one whole language classroom. Through anecdotal accounts and samples of children's writing, the authors describe a typical day in the classroom, present three case studies of children, and elaborate on a variety of teaching strategies used to incorporate phonics instruction in a whole language setting. The book gives a number of practical suggestions for teaching phonics through meaningful activities.

Schickedanz, J. (1989). The place of specific skills in preschool and kindergarten. In D.S. Strickland & L.M. Morrow (Eds.), *Emergent literacy: Young children learn to read and write* (pp. 96-106). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

> Details ways in which preschool children can learn reading skills such as letter names and sound-letter associations and develop the ability to segment words into phonemes within the context of typical classroom activities. The author describes classroom practices and teacher-child interactions that promote the development of specific reading skills.

Stahl, S.A., Osborn, J., & Lehr, F. (1990). *Beginning to read: A summary.* Urbana, IL: Center for the Study of Reading.

> Presents a summary of Adams' *Beginning to read.* (See the entry for M.J. Adams above.)

Journal Articles

Artley, A.S. (1990). Reading: Skills or competencies? *Language Arts, 57*(5), 546-549.

> Defines skills as processes learned through repetitious practice. Three of the most important aspects of reading—thinking, reasoning, and generalizing—are not acquired skills; they develop as a result of meaningful, interesting, and significant experiences with literacy. Reading should not be merely a function of skill acquisition, although knowledge of specific skills is necessary to be an effective reader.

Elley, W.B. (1989). Vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories. *Reading Research Quarterly, 24*(2), 174-187.

> Supports the practice of reading stories to young children to engender positive attitudes toward reading and to facilitate and promote vocabulary acquisition. Recognition of a wide variety of words enables children to better decode and comprehend texts, thus fostering literacy development.

Gillet, J.W., & Kita, J.M. (1979). Words, kids, and categories. *The Reading Teacher, 32*(5), 538-542.

> Describes practical activities to incorporate in an early childhood classroom environment to assist children in the categorization of words. The authors propose that categorization of words, which involves concept formation, perception, memory, problem solving, and linguistic behaviors, helps to improve word recognition skills and the recognition of common language structures. The article details a "word sort" activity and extensions of that activity.

Gunderson, L., & Shapiro, J. (1988). Whole language instruction: Writing in first grade. *The Reading Teacher, 41*(4), 430-437.

> Describes specific classroom practices, such as the teaching of skills in context, which facilitate literacy development in young children. The article also emphasizes the importance of high levels of teacher-child interaction in encouraging emerging literacy.

McConaughy, S.H. (1978). Word recognition and word meaning in the total reading process. *Language Arts, 55*(8), 946-956.

> Proposes the development of a model of reading that acknowledges the importance of both the end product of reading—the recognition of total words or the "perceptual component" of the process—and the prediction and selection procedures through which words derive their meaning (the "semantic

component" of reading). McConaughy concludes that skilled reading requires fluency in both components of the reading process.

McGee, L.M., & Richgels, D.J. (1989). "K is Kristen's": Learning the alphabet from a child's perspective. *The Reading Teacher, 43*(3), 216-225.

Details preschool children's changing knowledge about alphabet letters and their function. Discusses out-of-school environments in which children gain experience with and learn about letters of the alphabet. The authors provide practical information concerning the ways in which classroom teachers may use the information included in the article to more effectively design classroom instruction.

Schickedanz, J. (1990). Preschoolers and academics: Some thoughts. *Young Children, 46*(1), 4-14.

Compares literacy instruction episodes in the home environment with those in the typical kindergarten environment. In terms of the skill instruction provided, Schickedanz concludes that the opportunity for skills learning may be greater at home than in the classroom, noting the importance of the generally more supportive, affective context in the home. The article also emphasizes the importance of differentiating between academic content and academic instructional methods.

Stahl, S.A. (1992). Saying the "p" word: Nine guidelines for exemplary phonics instruction. *The Reading Teacher, 45*(8), 618-625.

Explains the often misunderstood relationship that exists between phonics and whole language instruction. Stahl discusses the principal elements that effective phonics instruction should contain and elaborates on numerous activities and programs that incorporate those elements. He outlines nine characteristics of successful phonics instruction to provide teachers with a valuable framework from which to construct their own phonics program.

Play

Books

Bergen, D. (Ed.). (1988). *Play as a medium for learning and development: A handbook of theory and practice.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

> Explores how play serves as a principal means through which children learn and develop. Prominent educators and researchers discuss theoretical, research-based, and practical functions of play in early childhood development. Teachers in both traditional and whole language classroom environments will be able to use particular elements of this text.

Christie, J.F. (Ed.). (1991). *Play and early literacy development.* Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

> Presents a series of chapters by authors who have studied the relationship between play and early literacy development. This volume provides evidence for the view that play can be an effective literacy learning medium for young children. Furthermore, use of this medium can be accomplished in such a way as to enhance rather than to destroy children's control over and enjoyment of both their play and their learning experiences.

Fox, M. (1987). *Teaching drama to young children.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

> Focuses on enhancing the listening and speaking skills vital to early literacy development. Through drama, children practice and improve their listening and speaking abilities. Fox outlines dramatic language arts activities to promote the development of young children's oral and written language skills. In a well-organized and coherent manner, the author provides specific directions to guide teachers in teaching drama to children ages 5 to 8.

Stewig, J.W. (1983). *Informal drama in the elementary language arts program.* New York: Teachers College Press.

> Proposes practical and effective ways for teachers of young children to integrate drama and literature. Stewig explicitly describes pragmatic exercises and lessons for educators to use to achieve success.

Journal Articles

Guddemi, M. (1990). Early education for the handicapped: Play and learning for the special child. *Day Care and Early Education, 18*(2), 39-40.

> Emphasizes that play is vitally important for special children because it stimulates their learning and development within a nonthreatening context in which they are guaranteed success. Guddemi lists certain conditions that must exist in order to ensure that play is developmentally appropriate for handicapped children. The author describes modifications that teachers need to make in the four types of play—exploratory, toy, social, and structured.

Isenberg, J., & Jacob, E. (1983). Literacy and symbolic play: A review of the literature. *Childhood Education, 59*(4), 272-276.

> Concludes that the use of symbols to represent objects, events, and situations is the process that underlies both symbolic play and literacy. Research documents that the level of symbolic play attained by young children corresponds to their reading achievement, comprehension, and oral language abilities. The authors suggest strategies for teachers to encourage and facilitate the development of early literacy.

Morrow, L.M., & Rand, M. (1991). Promoting literacy during play by designing early childhood classroom environments. *The Reading Teacher, 44*, 396-402.

> Describes physical characteristics of classrooms with literacy centers and dramatic play areas that will promote literacy activity during play. Thematic materials related to units being studied are considered valuable additions to the dramatic play area; literature-based manipulatives (such as puppets and role-playing materials) are suggested for the library corner.

Neuman, S.B., & Roskos, K. (1990). Play, print, and purpose: Enriching play environments for literacy development. *The Reading Teacher, 44*(3), 214-221.

> Explores how the print environment in a preschool classroom influences the number and kinds of literacy interactions that occur in young children's play. To encourage more literacy-based play activities, the authors reorganized and sharply defined the play space, increased the environmental labeling, and inserted appropriate, authentic, and useful literacy props into the play areas of two preschool classrooms. Neuman and Roskos conclude that literacy-based play in both settings improved as a result of their intervention. The authors pro-

vide a complete listing of the props they inserted into the play environment to facilitate such literacy development.

Roskos, K. (1988). Literacy at work in play. *The Reading Teacher, 41*(6), 562-566.

Discusses the nature of written and oral language in the symbolic play of a small group of preschool children, describing their oral language development, shared storytelling, and literacy socialization. The article proposes valid ways for parents and teachers to take advantage of the opportunities for literacy learning that pretend play offers. Through encouragement, participation, active listening, and the provision of opportunities, space, and props, parents and teachers can facilitate the development of early literacy through play.

Schickedanz, J. (1978). You be the doctor and I'll be sick: Preschoolers learn the language arts through play. *Language Arts, 55*(6), 713-718.

Assesses how young children's play experiences contribute to their early literacy development. The author determines that the existence of a physical and social play environment that is replete with literacy materials and experiences is of primary importance. The article provides a number of practical suggestions for teachers and lists literacy props that effectively promote literacy development through play experiences.

Schrader, C.T. (1990). Teaching children while they play: Cultivating emergent reading and writing. *Day Care and Early Education, 17*(3), 22-25.

Uses transcriptions of children's literacy-based play experiences to demonstrate how children incorporate and thus learn about the language arts in their symbolic play activities. The article contains a list of strategies teachers may implement to promote literacy development through play. Some suggestions include modeling functional writing, helping children explore new ways of using literacy materials, and providing intrinsically rewarding reading experiences.

Zeece, P.D., & Graul, S.K. (1990). Learning to play: Playing to learn. *Day Care and Early Education, 18*(1), 11-15.

Provides an all-encompassing definition of play; describes its physical, social, emotional, and intellectual benefits; and discusses the different stages and types of children's play behavior. The authors illustrate children's potential to learn through play and recommend that teachers model appropriate play behavior in the classroom and create an environment conducive to constructive play.

Television

Journal Articles

Preschoolers and TV: Prime time for parent involvement. (1982). *NJEA Review, 55*(6), 25.

Outlines recommendations developed by the New Jersey Coalition for Better TV Viewing. Discusses guidelines for parents to use in selecting, directing, and evaluating young children's television viewing. It suggests that parents watch TV with their children to monitor program choices and viewing time, to discuss both the content and format of particular shows, to correct any language errors made, and to encourage their children to expand their knowledge about a particular subject presented on television by reading about it further. This is an informative and very readable article.

Fredericks, A.D. (1991). Making the most of TV. *Teaching PreK-8, 21*(4), 18.

Details some strategies parents may implement to make television a more comprehensible and, therefore, a more valuable experience for young children. Suggestions include balancing leisure time spent viewing TV with time spent reading a book, encouraging children to use TV to gain information, watching TV with youngsters to ensure that they understand the difference between reality and fantasy, monitoring programs watched to restrict the amount of violence to which children are exposed, and discussing with children the unjustified stereotypes often portrayed. This is a comprehensive, worthwhile, and practical guide that teachers may wish to send home to parents.

Huston-Stein, A., & Wright, J.C. (1979). Children and television: Effects of the medium, its content, and its form. *Journal of Communication, 29*(3), 164-170.

Begins with a historical review of the predominant research on the effects television has on children. This article summarizes the principal areas of inquiry as well as the conclusions reached through research about the medium. The authors describe a current focus of study concerned not only with the content of TV programs but also with the production techniques and forms of such programs.

Neuman, S.B. (1980). Television: Its effects on reading and scholastic achievement. *The Reading Teacher, 33*(7), 801-805.

Considers a number of earlier studies about the effect of TV viewing on children's interest and achievement in reading. One of the studies indicates that television viewing primarily detracts from leisure time activities that cater to fantasy needs. The other studies determine that television viewing has no effect on reading achievement. A 1974 study described by Neuman proposes that a symbiotic relationship in which viewers' interests may be stimulated through both mediums exists between television and reading. Citing how scripted TV programs encourage read-along, Neuman arrives at the conclusion that television viewing does not have any proven negative effects on literacy; in fact, it may actually stimulate literacy development.

Rice, M.L., & Woodsmall, L. (1988). Lessons from television: Children's word learning when viewing television. *Child Development, 59*(2), 420-429.

Examines whether preschoolers are able to learn new words through television, whether some types of words are more easily learned than others, and at what stage of development children can effectively process new words gained through TV. The authors conclude from their study involving 61 preschool-aged children, that object, action, and attribute words presented on TV are most readily absorbed by the older of the preschool viewers, and that the learning took place without extensive context clues but with clear and frequent repetition of the words.

Selnow, G.W., & Bettinghaus, E.P. (1982). Television and language. *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media, 26*(1), 469-479.

Corroborates environmentalist theories of language development. Because the children in the study who viewed the most hours of TV displayed the lowest levels of language sophistication, the authors surmise that TV may have a negative impact on language development by depriving children of contact with adults, peers, and literacy-related activities. The authors also observed that children chose to view TV programs that paralleled their own levels of language sophistication. They conjecture that television programs either contribute to the degree of language development of children by providing them with language-deficient or language-rich models or accurately reflect and best suit children's own language needs.

Brochure

International Reading Association. (1991). *You can use television to stimulate your child's reading habits.* Newark, DE: Author.

Discusses parental involvement and participation in young children's television viewing as it relates to early literacy development. Single copies are available free on request with a #10 self-addressed envelope stamped with first class postage for one ounce. Send requests to IRA, PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139, USA.

Computers

Books

Clements, D.H. (1987). Computers and literacy. In J.A.L. Vacca, R.T. Vacca, & M.K. Gove (Eds.), *Reading and learning to read* (pp. 339-372). Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

> Provides an extensive overview of the types of computer-assisted instruction best suited to children's educational needs in a variety of situations. Computer programs and associated instructional activities are provided to guide teachers' use of computers in the teaching of reading and writing. This chapter is well organized, practical, and informative; it is an excellent resource for teachers who wish to enhance the literacy learning of their students through computers.

Journal Articles

Allen, D. (beginning 1989, August/September). Byte size. *Teaching PreK-8*.

> Focuses on a different theme or specific area of instruction in a regular monthly column. Allen provides anecdotal records of her own students' experiences with computers as she reviews software programs in terms of their usefulness, practicality, and educational worth. She lists prices, suggested age levels, and features that enhance the value and interest-maintaining capabilities of the programs. At the end of each feature, Allen lists locations of educational software distributors. The column is worthwhile and very readable.

Becker, J. (1990). Making connections. *Instructor, 100*(1), 67-69.

> Describes the unexpected rewards one teacher encountered because of her willingness to implement computer-assisted instruction. Provides helpful information about where and how to learn more about using computers while describing the professional knowledge and development that can result from involvement in national computer networks.

Brady, E.H., & Hill, S. (1988). Young children and microcomputers. *Young Children, 39*(3), 49-61.

Reviews the research on young children and microcomputers as it provides suggestions for parents and teachers about how to incorporate computer technology into early childhood education. The authors list both the benefits and the drawbacks of working with computers and young children and caution against some of the most common abuses of computers. Brady and Hill provide a comprehensive overview of current issues in computer education, ranging from its uses in special education and play to its adherence to curriculum goals and economic equity. It is an article well worth reading.

Marshall, G. (1990). Drill won't do. *American School Board Journal, 177*(7), 21-23.

Provides a stirring critique of the different usage of computers in urban and suburban schools. Marshall notes that in urban areas, computers are not used for data collection, analysis, writing, problem solving, or other higher order skills, but rather for repetitious drills. He provides suggestions on how to plan for effective computer use in the classroom, stressing the importance of integrating computer use into all content areas and allowing all students to have access to computer time.

Raymond, A. (1990). The school with TLC. *Teaching PreK-8, 21*(2), 32-35.

Describes one Rhode Island school's adoption of the IBM program "Teaching and Learning with Computers" (TLC). Information and details concerning the program are provided. Of primary interest, however, is the discussion of how computers may be used to increase children's sense of independence within the language arts program with software that focuses on brainstorming, writing, editing, and library skills.

Wepner, S.B. (1990). Technology between the lines. *Teaching PreK-8, 21*(2), 61-63.

Discusses how to integrate literature with software to devise useful and enjoyable themed instructional units. Wepner provides anecdotes and examples from her own experiences and lists specific software programs, their publishers, and the appropriate literature to integrate into the program to yield a truly whole language experience.

Assessment

Books

Barrs, M., Ellis, S., Tester, H., & Thomas, A. (1989). *The primary language record: Handbook for teachers*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

> Outlines ongoing evaluation methods that provide teachers, parents, and administrators with a detailed, comprehensive account of a child's early literacy development. To be most effective, the methods in this text require parental involvement in the child's literacy development and open lines of communication between parents, teachers, and administrators. Teachers using a whole language approach to education who are unsure about effective assessment measures will benefit from this book.

Chittenden, E.A., & Courtney, P. (1989). Assessment of young children's reading: Documentation as alternative to testing. In D.S. Strickland & L.M. Morrow (Eds.), *Emerging literacy: Young children learn to read and write*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

> Describes aspects of a project to develop programs of documentation as an alternative approach to the assessment of early reading. Steps are provided for schools to use in establishing such a program of documentation.

Morrow, L.M., & Smith, J.K. (Eds.). (1990). *Assessment for instruction in early literacy*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

> Provides a well-constructed synthesis and interpretation of current research, theory, and practical information about ways to assess literacy development in early childhood. Distinguished professionals in the field of emergent literacy contributed chapters to this volume, which discusses a variety of methods to facilitate the teaching and learning of literacy as well as methods of assessing young children's knowledge of literacy.

Journal Articles

Judd, D.C. (1989). Kid's report. *Teaching PreK-8, 20*(1), 91.

> Describes an easy yet enlightening means of assessing young

children's development. Judd shares anecdotal reports of her students' candid self-evaluations. The procedure is an interesting and informative means of determining the progress children have made since it reflects the children's own perceptions of their achievements.

Pils, L.J. (1991). Soon anofe you tout me: Evaluation in a first-grade whole language classroom. *The Reading Teacher, 45*(1), 46-50.

Provides a practical guide for the successful implementation of a whole language philosophy in a first grade classroom. Pils focuses her discussion on the measures she used to ensure the fair, accurate, and comprehensive evaluation of her students' individual performance and growth. An excellent, practical article designed to assist other teachers in creating and using portfolio assessment measures.

Teale, W.H. (1988). Developmentally appropriate assessment of reading and writing in the early childhood classroom. *Elementary School Journal, 89*(2), 173-183.

Presents specific strategies and principles for devising and using developmentally appropriate assessment procedures for young children's literacy learning. Teale focuses specifically on children's knowledge of the functions of written language, emergent reading of storybooks, writing strategies, and knowledge of letter-sound correspondences. He contends that because informal observations are consistent with the developmental characteristics of young children, they are more appropriate measures of early literacy development than are standardized tests. Furthermore, because such measures may be conducted in conjunction with instruction, and because they are more like actual teaching practices than standardized tests, they provide more useful information to teachers.

Teale, W.H., Hiebert, E.H., & Chittenden, E.A. (1987). Assessing young children's literacy development. *The Reading Teacher, 40*(8), 772-777.

Argues that present assessment measures of early literacy development are incongruent with the instructional methods used in classrooms. The authors contend that in order to arrive at a balanced and accurate evaluation of young children's literacy development, educators must implement a variety of evaluation procedures that focus on a wide range of skills and knowledge about multiple aspects of literacy development. The article suggests different evaluation strategies, such as performance-sample methods and observations, and

discusses six fundamental principles that provide a framework for a comprehensive, early literacy assessment program.

Vavrus, L. (1990). Put portfolios to the test. *Instructor, 100*(1), 48-53.

Provides an excellent, comprehensive, and totally practical guide to using portfolio assessment in the classroom. Includes sequenced, detailed instructions for organizing and using portfolio-based evaluation. Vavrus discusses the conceptual and physical structures of portfolios as well as their evaluation and future use by other teachers, parents, and administrators.

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